DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 053 120 TE 002 494

AUTHOR	Atkins, Melvin E.; Furr, Paul R.
TITLE	An Introduction to Linguistics.
INSTITUTION	Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tenn.
PUB DATE	Jul 69
NOTE	37p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Shelby County Schools, 160 South Hollywood Street, Memphis, Tennessee 38112 ($3.00)
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	*English Instruction, *Inservice Teacher Education, Kernel Sentences, *Linguistics, *Structural Analysis, *Structural Linguistics

ABSTRACT

This document is designed to aid the teacher in bridging the gap created by apparently divergent approaches to the study of language. It attempts to identify certain basic assumptions prerequisite to the study of language and to give the teacher an overview of the traditional, structural, and transformational-generative approaches to the study of language. A limited glossary of frequently used linguistic terms is included, and the teacher should find most of the materials in the bibliography beneficial. (Author/DB)

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AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

1969

TE 002 494

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AN INTRODUCTION TO LINGUISTICS

TE 002 494

Shelby County Schools
Memphis, Tennessee
July, 1969

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Statement of Purpose 1

Some Basic Assumptions About Language 2

Some Basic Questions About Linguistics 3

1. What is linguistics? 3
2. Which linguistics system is the best one? 3
3. At what grade level should a linguistics program be initiated? 3
4. What is traditional grammar? 3
5. Where did traditional grammar have its origin? 4
6. What are some of the major objections to traditional grammar? 4
7. What is structural linguistics? 5
8. Where should a study of structural English begin? 5
9. What is phonology? 5
10. What are segmental phonemes? 6
11. What are supra-segmental phonemes? 6
12. What is morphology? 6
13. Can traditional terminology be defined in terms of structural linguistics? 6
14. What is transformational-generative grammar? 6

An Overview of the Contributions of Linguistic Approaches 8

1. Basic kernel sentences 8
   - a. Sentences without complements 8
   - b. Sentences with objective case complements 8
   - c. Sentences with subjective complements 9
   - d. Sentences with adverb complements 9
2. Two kinds of words 10
   - a. Form class words 10
     - (1) Nouns 10
     - (2) Verbs 11
     - (3) Modifiers 13
   - b. Structure words 13
     - (1) Determiner 13
     - (2) Auxiliary 13
     - (3) Intensive 14
     - (4) Preposition 14
     - (5) Coordinator 14
     - (6) Sentence Connector 14
     - (7) Subordinator 14
     - (8) Questioners 14
     - (9) Terms & Symbols for Structure Words 14

3. Phrase Structure 14
a. Noun phrase 15
b. Verb phrase 15
4. Kinds of transforms and expansions 17
a. The *there* transform 17
b. Verb transformations 17
(1) Passive transforms 17
(2) Modal transforms 18
c. Question transforms 18
(1) Questioner transforms 18
(2) Auxiliary question transforms 19
d. Negative transforms 19
e. Modification 19
(1) Transformation of kernels without complements 20
(2) Transformation of kernels with objective case complements 20
(3) Transformation of kernels with subjective case complements 20
(4) Transformation of kernels with adverb complements 21
(5) Transformation of kernels into adverb clauses 21
f. Noun substitutes derived from transformed kernels 22
(1) Verb clusters 22
(2) Clauses 22
g. Expansion through coordination of kernels 22
h. Apposition as an Expansion 22
5. Examples of the kinds of diagrams 23

Limited Glossary of Linguistic Terms 26

Bibliography 28

Materials Available at Central Office 31

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

This document is designed to aid the teacher in bridging the gap created by apparently divergent approaches to the study of language, but not to offer a course of study, a curriculum guide, or a full treatment of linguistics. It attempts to identify certain basic assumptions prerequisite to the study of language. The classroom teacher should examine language within the framework of these assumptions.

It also attempts to give the teacher an overview of the traditional, structural, and transformational-generative approaches to the study of language. A limited glossary of frequently used linguistic terms is included. Some of the bibliographical entries contain more conclusive glossaries, especially *Language of Linguistics* and *Modern Grammar and Composition*.

With the barrage of linguistic materials being produced, the bibliography will need supplementation in the near future; however, the teacher should find most of the materials beneficial. The teacher should be selective in the choice of sources. Some sources may be found difficult; – for example, Bloomfield's *Language* and Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*. Any of the material by Paul Roberts is easily adaptable to the classroom. In addition, the *English Journal* presents articles on linguistics which are practical and applicable to the classroom.

SOME BASIC ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT LANGUAGE

1. *Language is a Social Phenomenon.* The physical organs which constitute the speech mechanism were designed for other physiological functions, yet of necessity man has learned to utilize these organs to interact socially.

2. *Language Changes.* Over an extended period of time corruption often becomes standard. If this were not so, then the language of *Beowulf* would be the language of Hemingway. Since language changes, any attempt to describe the language is relative to usage. No rules of grammar are absolute; therefore, approaches to the study of language are subject to re-examination and revision.

3. *Language is Behavior.* Much of the behavior in which human beings engage is verbal. The human being acts within a social context through verbal behavior in the form of language. Language becomes the major medium of interaction among individuals within the social context. Thus patterns of behavior are expressed in verbal patterns which compose the patterns of language. The study of language is really a description of what is socially acceptable verbal behavior within a social context.

4. *Usage Determines Standards.* The way the language is used by those who speak it determines what is standard. This becomes apparent when any language is viewed within its historical framework. Usage has levels ranging from the vulgate to the formal. Each of the levels of usage has unique qualities which must be considered in any study of language. In addition there are differences between the language in its written form and its spoken form.

5. *Language Expresses Meaning.* Man uses languages to make himself known. Through language he relates himself to others by expressing his ideas, needs, and emotions. Language is simply a way of transferring meaning from one central nervous system to another by the uses of arbitrary symbols.

6. *Grammaticality Is Not Enough.* A sentence may be grammatically perfect, yet devoid of sense and meaning; for example, "Dog's wear sunglasses" and "The poly whoggled a whiggle" are grammatically perfect but senseless. Sentences should make sense.

SOME BASIC QUESTIONS ABOUT LINGUISTICS

1. *What is Linguistics?* Linguistics is the study of language and rightfully includes all approaches to the study of grammar. Structural and transformational-generative grammars have been labeled erroneously as the "New English." Actually they are new ways of looking at language. They are based upon scientific observation of the language as it exists. The mathematical-like symbols of the new approaches should not alarm teachers. Some of these symbols correspond closely to traditional parts of speech and parts of the sentence. They are an attempt to describe the language in reduced terms, but they are symbols for functions and not definitions. Modern approaches to the study of language aid the teacher through careful analysis of the language as it exists.

2. *Which Linguistic System is the Best One?* From a practical point of view, the approach which works best is the best one, but best for whom– the teacher or the student? No one best approach exists, but the worst approach is to use the same one exclusively. Certainly all approaches have something to offer. Our language has an intrinsic and arbitrary system. This system supercedes the description of it and exits before and after the fact of the description. Thus a language may exist without a description of it. Such was the case of many languages in the past. Man utilized language long before he attempted to formulate a description of it. Several systematic descriptions have emerged. None is conclusive, but they hold much promise. A survey of available literature reveals that linguists do not agree on terminology. They do not agree on the number of basic sentence patterns. Linguists as such are not concerned with making their findings applicable to the public school classroom. The responsibility of doing this falls to the teacher. The teacher should glean from all approaches whatever enhances the communication skills of the child.

3. *At What Grade Level Should A Linguistics Program Be Initiated?* The pre-school child has a working knowledge of the language although this language is preliterate. Knowledge of the spoken language precedes knowledge of its written symbols. By learning the patterns of spoken language, the pre-school child has developed a built-in sense of grammaticality. Since there are levels of usage and differences between the spoken language and the written language, the child may be functioning on a language level which is not based on standard usage; however, the basic patterns of the language as a whole will have been learned. The teacher at the primary levels can utilize the student's knowledge of the language by expanding and building on the basic patterns of the language. The approach to a linguistic program should be as free of linguistic jargon as possible. Linguists are not in agreement as to where the program should be initiated, but some phase of it should be initiated prior to the junior high level; however, such a program does not have to be restricted to the elementary level.

4. *What Is Traditional Grammar?* Traditional grammar is either prescriptive or deductive. It formulates a number of rules and seeks to have students apply these rules. Traditional grammar has the operational eight parts of speech: verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Traditional grammar is based primarily upon function or meaning.

5. *Where Did Traditional Grammar Have Its Origin?* The Greeks were the first grammarians. Aristotle and others studied the Greek language. During this time divisions of words were classified into parts of speech.

The Romans copied the Greeks. By the time this had taken place, the main outlines of Greek grammar had been formulated. The two languages are similar in many ways, and thus it proved possible to interchange or transfer this pre-existing system of grammar to Latin with only minor changes. Greek terminology was translated rather literally, eventually to be adapted from Latin to English and other languages of Europe.

Before the advent of the linguists, the traditional grammarians superimposed the system of Latin grammar upon English. Latin grammars were copied because Latin was considered such a "perfect language."

Because of the work of linguists, educators have come to know that this system is not compatible with English today not was it ever compatible with English. Each language has its own characteristics.

During the Middle Ages most writers wrote about Greek and Latin. Writing was objective because of relatively few changes. A writer could be prescriptive because no changes were involved. There were some brief attempts to write grammars of contemporary European languages. Greek and Latin grammars were used as models.

These attempts continued into the Renaissance. John Dryden was interested in grammar. Dryden said never to split an infinitive. He based his decision on the Latin infinitive being a single unit. He also conceived the idea of not ending a sentence with a preposition. His argument was that English should follow the rules of Latin. Thus, English was being forced into a mold and English does not fit readily into a Latin mold.

Johathan Swift was interested in diction. He objected to words entering into the English language. Bishop Laut, a hunter of errors, examined the classics of Chaucer and others. His objection was to the double comparison and double negative.

Nineteenth century grammarians did widen the horizons considerably by taking a broader view. During this time there was an increasing interest as to how languages were derived.

The twentieth century has brought about vast changes, but most textbooks date back to the Latin tradition and traditional terminology of English has had to be reinterpreted in modern times to apply more accurately to English. Such interpretation continues to be based on terminology that originally applied to Latin and as previously stated, English does not fit readily into a Latin mold.

6. *What Are Some of the Major Objections to Traditional Grammar?*

   a. Traditional grammar still is basically a Latinate grammar rather than an English grammar. It is not descriptive of a Teutonic based language. English relies on word order. It is not as highly inflectional. Take the popular Latin sentence for "I love you." It can be "Amo te" or "Te amo." Word order makes no difference in the Latin grammar. The parts of the Latin sentence are so highly inflected

with endings that one determines the function by these endings. The English language has lost almost all of its inflectional endings; therefore, the English sentence relies upon word order. One may say "I love you" but never "You I love," except in poetry.

b. In traditional grammar the definitions are not particularly satisfactory. There is a lack of parrallelism—the definitions are confusing; for example, the pronoun is defined as a word that takes the place of a noun, but so does a gerund, a gerund phrase, or a noun clause. Some of the classifications into parts of speech do not function the same; for example, the word *light* may be *I will light a match; The light is on,* or *The light green car was wrecked.*

c. Traditional grammar tends to be prescriptive and usually is based on whim. This has led to the idea that there is a "right or wrong" in English. The historical development of the language has not been taken into account.

d. Not enough attention has been given to the spoken language as being primary to the written.

e. To compensate for the fact that traditional grammar does not adequately describe the system, traditional grammarians include the "exception to the rule" theory.

7. *What is Structural Linguistics?* Structural linguistics owes its origin to a desire to be scientific and its popularity in part to its use in teaching obscure languages during World War II. A structuralist may be able to define subjects and verbs briefly and exactly, but pursued seriously and in detail, structural linguistics can become complicated, so complicated that only persistent students can hope to stagger through it and so subtle that as yet, educators do not agree.

8. *Where Should a Study of Structural English Begin?* A study of structural English grammar should logically begin with a consideration of the speech sounds. A descriptive grammar of English involves the study of a system of speech sound called PHONOLOGY.

9. *What is Phonology?* Phonology is the study of the sounds of a language. By employing the speech mechanism, man produces sounds which may or may not have meaning. Sounds like grunts or sighs which have no meaning within themselves, other than connotative, are called *phones.* When the sound produced becomes vested with meaning, it is called a *phoneme* – the smallest unit of sound in the language. The phoneme *b* has meaning, but a grunt does not. A grunt cannot be symbolized by *graphemes*—the written symbol for the phoneme. When one tries to transcribe a grunt or a sigh, the difference between a *phone* and a *phoneme* becomes apparent.

Phonology has two distinct branches – *phonetics* and *phonemics.* Phonetics is the systematic study of the sounds used in speaking. Emphasis is placed on the way the sounds are produced (articulatory phonetics) and on the analysis of the sound waves (acoustic phonetics). *Phonemics* analyzes the sounds of a language and the way in which they are put together to communicate. The importance of phonology is attributed to the fact that the English alphabet has twenty-six characters, but the language itself has about forty-five distinct sound. Linguists point out that the speech mechanism is capable of producing much more than the forty-five phonemes of the English language.

10. *What Are Segmental Phonemes?* Segmental phonemes are the sounds—the vowels and consonants—of the language.

11. *What Are Supra-Segmental Phonemes?* Supra-segmental phonemes are the intonation patterns of the language. They involve pitch, stress, and juncture. Pitch is the highness of lowness of voice. Stress is the loudness of the voice. Juncture deals with the pauses of the voice. Intonation affects meaning. Through variation in the intonation patterns, the following example may acquire different meanings:

    What's that in the road *a-head?*

    By varying the pitch, stress, and juncture on *a-head,* different meanings may be derived.

12. *What is Morphology?* Morphology is the study of words. *Morphemes* are the smallest meaningful unit of the language (a phoneme is the smallest meaningful unit of sound.) Morphemes are composed of phonemes. A morpheme may be free (a word) or bound (an affix). Although a bound morpheme may not stand alone, it still has meaning. *Master* is a free morpheme; a free morpheme and a bound morpheme may be combined. *Master + ful* becomes *masterful.* A morpheme derives its meaning from the speech community. The meaning of a morpheme, as well as its pronunciation, may change over a period of years or may vary according to the social, economic, cultural, and educational level or the geographic location of the speech community.

13. *Can Traditional Terminology Be Defined in Terms of Structural Linguistics?* Because no two structural linguistics apply the same terms and definitions, none can be considered final or complete. Definitions and terms that have been developed are often ambiguous and difficult to explain. To avoid problems of traditional English definitions, the structuralist defines terms by way of structural examples and formal characteristics.

    There is a close correlation between traditional and structural grammar with regard to the parts of speech, but there are notable differences. Because of such differences some linguists avoid traditional terminology entirely.

14. *What is Transformation-Generative Grammar?* The English language is composed of an infinite number of complex ways of expressing ideas. The transformationalists contend that these ways are derived from basic kernal sentences—sentence patterns. Through transformation and expansion, a person may generate—produce—a variety of sentences to express ideas.

    The frog ate the grasshopper is a kernel sentence (N1 V N2). This kernal sentence may be expanded by embedding other transformed kernel sentences in it. Additional facts may be listed about the frog in the form of kernel sentence patterns:

    The frog seemed hungry.
    The frog was little.
    The frog was green.

    By transforming and embedding these sentences, the noun phrase is expanded to *the hungry little green frog.* The noun phrase *the grasshopper* may also be expanded through a transformation; for example, *the grasshopper jumped in the yard* becomes *the grasshopper which jumped in the yard.* The expanded sentence is *The hungry little green frog ate the grasshopper which jumped in the yard.*

Thus by combining several kernel sentence patterns, one may generate expanded sentences to express more complex ideas. Transformationalists base their assumption on the premist that the components of an expanded sentence are really kernel patterns transformed. In *deep structure*, the human mind arranges ideas in the form of kernel sentences. Before the ideas become semantically encoded and verbalized on the *surface structure* level, the transformed kernels are strung together like the beads of a necklace to form the expanded sentence.

AN OVERVIEW OF THE CONTRIBUTIONS OF LINGUISTIC APPROACHES

Textbooks designed for public schools are eclectic. This section will be highly eclectic. It is far from a comprehensive scholarly treatment of linguistics. Such an undertaking would require volumes. This section attempts to glean whatever will be most beneficial to the teacher.

1. *Basic Kernel Sentences* (Sentence patterns)

Transformationalists list different numbers of kernel sentences and list them in different order. There is nothing sacred about the number of patterns listed or the order in which they are listed. To aid teachers in applying what is known about traditional grammar to the transformational approach, the basic patterns will be grouped into the four classes listed below. In addition to transformational symbols, traditional symbols will be used. Noun functions will be numbered to help distinguish the difference between them. In sentences where more than one noun function has the same number, the functions are equivalent; for example, N1 V N1 shows that the pattern calls for a subject-verb-predicate nominative sentence.

The teacher should remember that modification by adjectives, adverbs, phrases, and clauses constitutes a transformation of a basic pattern.

a. *Sentences Without Complements*

N	V
Dogs	bark.

(This pattern consists of a subject and a verb. N stands for the subject and V for the verb.)

b. *Sentences With Objective Case Complements*

(1)

N^1	V	N^2
Dogs	eat	bones.

(This pattern is the simple subject + verb + direct object pattern.)

(2)

N^1	V	N^2	N^3
Bob	gave	Mary	candy.

(This pattern consists of subject + verb + indirect object + direct object. It should be noted that certain verbs will not take an indirect object).

(3)

N^1	V	N^2	N^2
We	chose	him	president.

(This pattern consists of the subject + verb + direct object + noun objective complement. A noun objective complement completes the direct object in much the same way that a predicate nominative completes the subject. This pattern will result only from the use of certain verbs.)

(4) N^1 V N^2 Adj.

We thought him foolish.

(This pattern consists of the subject + verb + direct object + adjective objective complement. An adjective complement modifies the direct object in much the same way that the predicate adjective modifies the subject.)

c. *Sentences With Subjective Complements*

(1) N^1 V N^1

Lincoln became president .

(This pattern consists of subject + linking verb + predicate nominative. Transformationalists differ about verbs like *became*, *seem*, and *appear* and *be*.)

(2) N^1 V Adj.

Apples taste delicious.

(This pattern consists of subject + linking verb + predicate adjective.)

(3) N^1 Be N^1

Lincoln was president.

(This pattern consists of subject + a form of be + predicate nominative.)

(4) N^1 Be Adj.

Apples are delicious.

(This pattern consists of subject + some form of be + predicate adjective.)

d. *Sentences With Adverb Complements*

(1) N^1 V Adv.

Eagles soar high.

(This pattern consists of subject + intransitive verb + adverb.)

(2) N^1 Be Adv.

Mary is here.

(This pattern consists of subject + some form of be + adverb.)

2. *Two Kinds of Words*

a. *Form Class Words*. Form class words (noun, verb, adjective, and adverb) carry the main idea of the sentence and act as the essential parts of the kernel sentence. Form class words change in form. Nouns change in form to show number or possession. Verbs change in form to express predication or nonpredication, tense, number, and person. Adjectives and adverbs change in form to show comparison. Some traditional pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs are classified as structure words because they do not change in form; for example, *the* is defined in traditional grammar as an adjective, but in the modern approaches *the* becomes a structure word. The term "form class words" is derived from structural grammar.

(1) *Nouns*
Nouns are defined traditionally as the name of a person, place or thing. Some traditional grammarians add that a noun may serve various functions in the sentence. Others distinguish between the kinds of nouns – proper nouns, common nouns, and concrete nouns and abstract nouns.

Structuralism views the noun from the standpoint of word structure (word form) and sentence structure (word order). Structuralists observe that nouns have three basic characteristics:

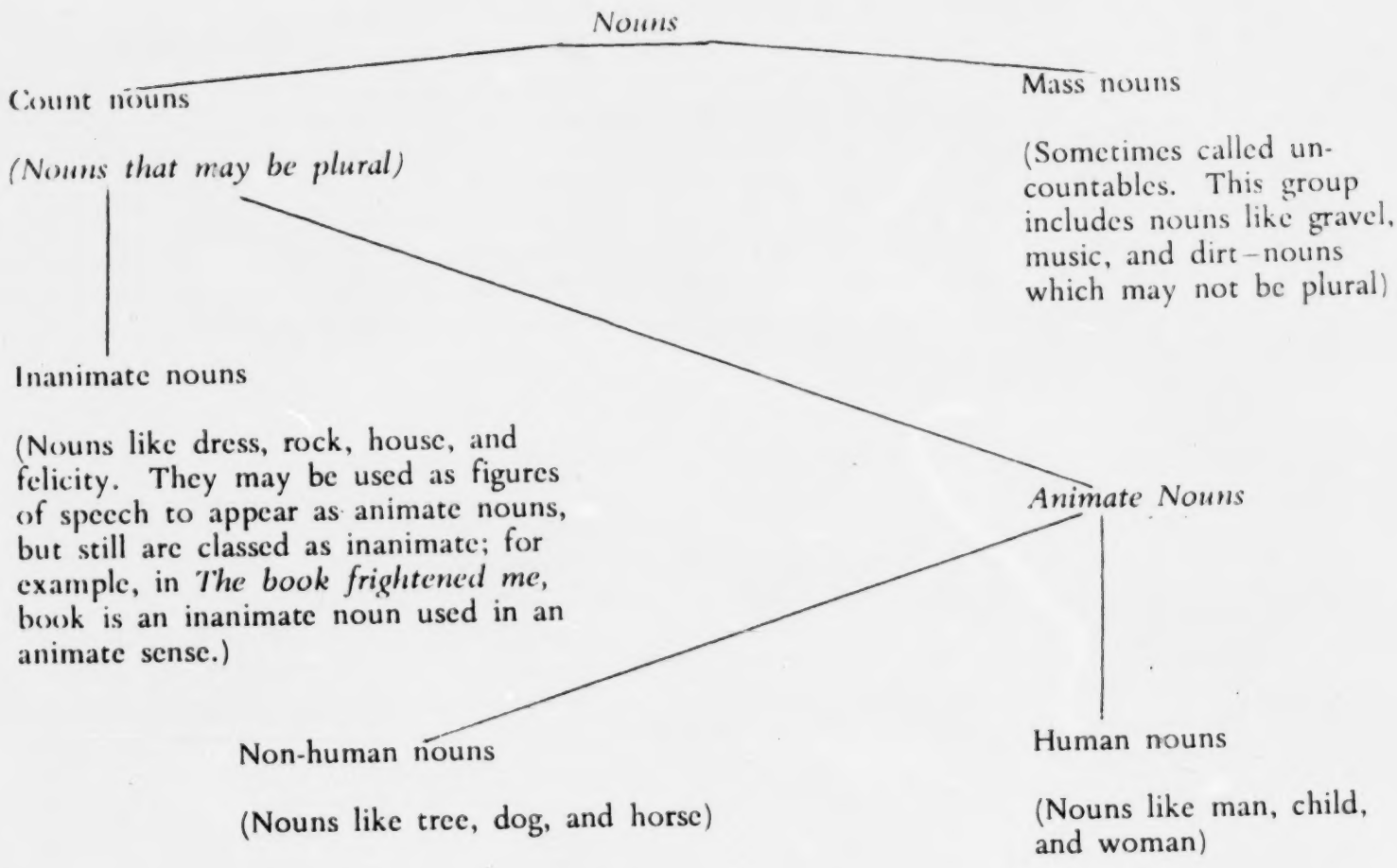
(a) Nouns show number and possession by changing form (man, men; bird, birds; men, men's).
(b) Nouns occupy a unique position in the word order of the sentence. (*Bees* make *honey*, or near the *house)*
(c) Nouns may be preceded by signal words like *the*, *a*, *an*, and *some*.

Transformationalists avoid definitions or descriptions as much as possible. Their purpose is to allow one to arrive inductively at a knowledge of the constituents of the sentence without deducing definitions. Although their primary concern is the generation of sentences, they must define some terms. Nouns are defined by classifying them into types of nouns. All nouns are divided into count nouns and mass (non-countable) nouns. Count nouns may be divided into animate or inanimate. Animate nouns are divided into human and non-human.

The following diagram may be of some help: (on following page)

Transformational – Generative

Classification of nouns


Nouns
Count nouns
(Nouns that may be plural)
Mass nouns
(Sometimes called uncountables. This group includes nouns like gravel, music, and dirt–nouns which may not be plural)
Inanimate nouns
(Nouns like dress, rock, house, and felicity. They may be used as figures of speech to appear as animate nouns, but still are classed as inanimate; for example, in *The book frightened me,* book is an inanimate noun used in an animate sense.)
Animate Nouns
Non-human nouns
(Nouns like tree, dog, and horse)
Human nouns
(Nouns like man, child, and woman)

(2) *Verbs*

Traditionally, verbs are defined as words which express action, or state of being. Other traditionalists add that the verb makes a statement, asks a question, or gives a command about a person, place, or thing. These definitions are misleading. Some verbs do not express action or state of being (grow, wish, think, believe). Also, sentences make statements, ask questions, or give commands. Are verbs and sentences the same thing?

Structuralists emphasize form and structure. They define a verb by its form and position in the sentence. Through internal change (freeze, froze) or through affixation (play, played, to make the principal parts; play, plays, to make person), verbs may differ in form.

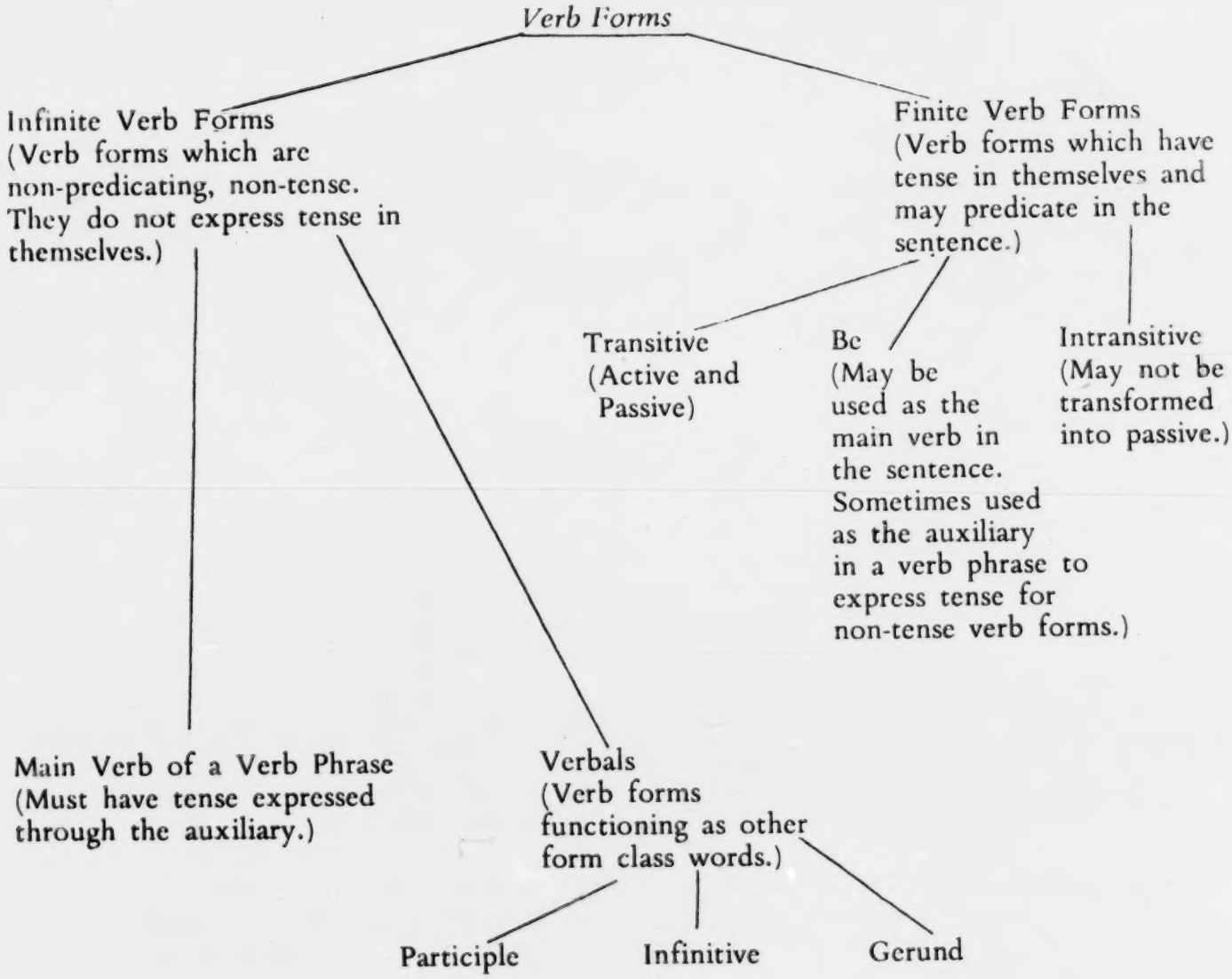
The verb occupies a unique position in the word order of the sentence (Birds *eat* grain). The verb may be preceded by a signal word–the auxiliary verb (The birds *will* eat the grain, *Will* the birds eat the grain?).

Again transformationalists avoid definitions. They emphasize the syntactic properties of the verb. First, the verb must express tense through itself or through the auxiliary. Second, the verb is the headword (immediate constituent) of the verb phrase.

Since traditional grammar is based on Latin grammar, it is assumed that English has six tenses like Latin; however, English is a Germanic language, and Germanic languages have a two-tense verb system.

English verbs have only two forms to express tense—the present and the past. The present participle, the past participle, and the infinitive do not express tense. They are non-tense, non-predicating, infinite verb forms not limited by person or number. They may function as the main verb (immediate constituent) of a verb phrase if the tense is expressed through an auxiliary or a modal. *Going* does not have tense, but when preceded by a form of *be*, the tense is expressed through the auxiliary and *going* becomes the immediate constituent (main verb) of the verb phrase. The past participle preceded by an auxiliary is the passive-transform. The passive transform is discussed under the section on transforms.

BREAKDOWN OF THE ENGLISH VERB


Verb Forms
Infinite Verb Forms (Verb forms which are non-predicating, non-tense. They do not express tense in themselves.)
Finite Verb Forms (Verb forms which have tense in themselves and may predicate in the sentence.)
Transitive (Active and Passive)
Be (May be used as the main verb in the sentence. Sometimes used as the auxiliary in a verb phrase to express tense for non-tense verb forms.)
Intransitive (May not be transformed into passive.)
Main Verb of a Verb Phrase (Must have tense expressed through the auxiliary.)
Verbals (Verb forms functioning as other form class words.)
Participle
Infinitive
Gerund

(3) *Modifiers*

The use of modifiers is usually a transformation, unless the modifier is an essential constituent of the kernel sentence pattern as in *John appeared ill (N + V + Adj), or Turtles crawl slowly (N + V + Adv.).*

Modifiers have inflectional endings to show degrees of comparison (fast, faster, fastest), or they may be preceded by an intensifier (more, most, very). In addition, both adjectives and adverbs employ the use of suffixes (-ful, -ly, -al, -ward).

Inflection is the process of adding suffixes and sometimes prefixes to nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs to express case, gender, number, person, tense, or degree. Research has shown that the once highly inflected English language had lost most of its inflectional endings by the twelfth or thirteenth century.

Nouns and verbs may also function as modifiers, but they retain the characteristics of their form class. Words that assume form class characteristics of adjectives or adverbs become adjectives and adverbs. In *he bought a tomato plant, tomato* is a noun functioning as an adjective; it is a functional adjective, but a formal noun. For *tomato* to become a true adjective, the language system would allow us to say *tomatoer, tomatoest, most tomato, very tomato.*

Verbs used as modifiers are simply verb forms which cannot function as verbs because they are void of tense without the auxiliary; therefore, they assume some other form class function—nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. *Falling* is a verb form, but it cannot function as a verb. In *the falling tree, falling* is an adjective function. In order for *falling* to become an adjective form we would have to be able to say *fallinger, fallingest, more falling, or very falling.*

b. *Structure words*

Structure words contribute to the meaning of the sentence. The term itself derives from structural grammar but can be applied to transformational grammar as well. The number of groups and grouping of the structure words varied with the linguists, but the following list is a reliable guide.

(1) *Determiner* – a noun marker or a noun signal word, these include the articles *a, the,* and *an,* and sometimes words like *some, these,* and *each* when used before a noun. The symbol for a determiner is *D.*

(2) *Auxiliary* – a verb marker or a verb signal word. These include words like *am, are, is, may, will,* and *should.* Sometimes auxiliaries like *may, will, should* are called modals. When an auxiliary appears before the verb in a verb phrase, the tense is expressed in the auxiliary. *Be* may be used as the verb in a sentence pattern with a subjective complement. In these sentences *be* is not an auxiliary.

Since tense is sometimes expressed through the use of the auxiliary, some linguists will use the symbol *T*; others use the sumbol *Aux*. For modals, the symbol may be *M*.

(3) *Intensive* – a word which intensifies or emphasizes the meaning of an adjective or an adverb. In traditional grammar many of these are classed as adverbs. These include words like *very*, *really*, *rather*, and *too*. The symbol used is *I*.

(4) *Preposition* -- a word which combines with a noun in a preposition group to function as a modifier. Thy symbol used is *P*.

(5) *Coordinator* – a word which connects functions of equal rank. These include words like *and*, *but*, *or*, and *for*. These are sometimes called conjunctions. The symbol used is *C*.

(6) *Sentence Connector* -- a word which connects sentences. These include words like *therefore*, *however*, and *nevertheless*. The symbol used is *SC*.

(7) *Subordinator* – a word which subordinates one sentence pattern to another. Subordinators include words like *because*, *since*, and *after*. The symbol is *S*. (Some linguists have a separate classification for relative words–*R*. These include the words *who*, *which*, and *that*.

(8) *Questioners* – a word which introduces or signals a question. These include *who*, *where*, *what*, and *how*. Questions may also be introduced by an auxiliary, but the auxiliary does not become a questioner. Questions require a transformation of a kernel sentence. The symbol is *O*.

(9) *Terms and Symbols for Structure Words*

Determiner	D
Auxiliaries	T or Aux
Preposition	P
Intensives	I
Coordinators	C
Sentence Connectors	SC
Subordinators	S
Questioners	Q (Wh)
Modal	M
Relative	R

3. *Phrase Structure*

The English sentence consists of a noun phrase plus a verb phrase. It is symbolized as *S – N P + V P*. Traditional grammarians say that a sentence consists of a complete subject and a complete predicate. In a sense, the *N P* corresponds to the complete

subject and the *V P* corresponds to the complete predicate. The main word of the phrase is called the headword. In the phrase *the light green car, car* is the headword of the noun phrase, or in *would have known, known* is the headword of the verb phrase. The verb phrase may also contain a noun phrase to function as a complement.

In a sentence kernel like *Unicorns have horns*, the verb phrase contains the noun phrase *horns;* however, in *Dogs bark* the verb phrase does not contain a noun phrase.

a. *Noun Phrase.* A basic noun phrase consists of a noun plus a determiner. If the phrase contains a determiner its formula is written as D + N. If the determiner is omitted the formula may be written as Ø + N. Ø is the null symbol for no determiner.

   In *Dogs bark*, the noun phrase does not have a determiner so the pattern is written Ø + N or null plus noun, but in *Some dogs bark* or *The dogs bark*, the noun phrase is D + H or determiner plus noun.

   When the noun phrase contains an adjective, it is a transform; for example, *the tall boy* is a transform of *The boy is tall.* Modification is discussed under the section on modification transforms.

b. *Verb Phrase.* If the verb is transitive or linking, the verb phrase consists of the verb plus its complements
(VP – VP + NP). An intransitive verb does not take a complement so the noun phrase would be omitted from the verb phrase. In *Dogs eat bones and Dogs are mammals,* the verb phrase contains the verb phrase and the noun phrase, but in *Dogs bark*, the verb phrase does not contain a noun phrase.

   The verb phrase itself must contain tense plus the verb (T + V). Tense may be expressed through the auxiliary. The active voice future and perfect tenses and the progressive forms have tense expressed through the auxiliary. The passive voice has tense expressed through the auxiliary, but it is considered a transform because the structure of the sentence is changed (transformed). In *Dog bark*, the tense is expressed in the verb form, but in *The dogs are barking*, the main verb form does not have tense. The tense is expressed through the auxiliary.

There are four basic principles involved in the generation of verb phrases. These principles are "linguistic hybrids" derived from the traditional approach and the transformational approach.

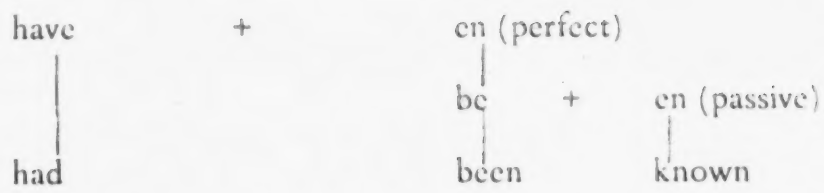
Principle 1. Perfect tenses consist of some form of *have* plus the *past participle.* The sign for the past participle is *en.*

have	+	en
|		|
has		departed

Principle 2. Passive forms consist of some form of *be* plus the *past participle (en).* (The use of the passive constitutes a transform.)
Passive forms:

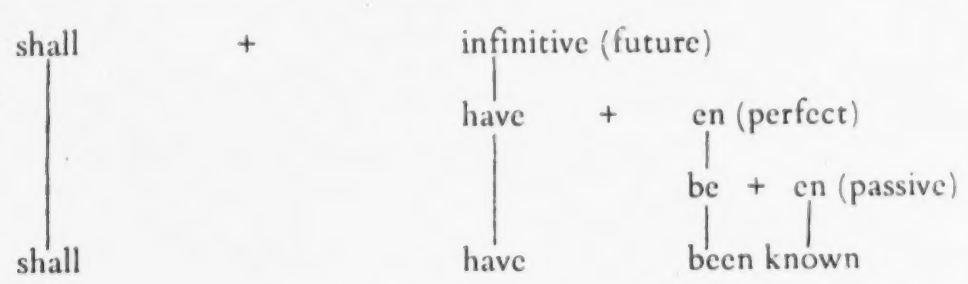
be	+	en
|		|
was		known

Perfect passive forms



Principle 3. Future tense forms consist of *shall* plus the infinitive. (The present tense has lost its inflectional endings except the third person singular *s;* therefore, the present tense forms and the infinitive forms are identical. *Be* is the only English verb which has retained present tense forms distinct from the infinitive.)

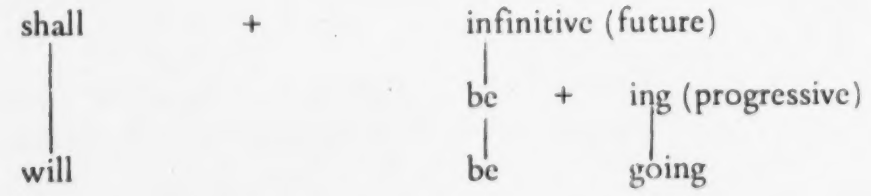
Future perfect passive forms



Principle 4. Progressive forms consist of some form of *be* plus the *present participle.* (The sign for the present participle is *ing.)*

Progressive forms

Future progressive forms



Perfect progressive forms

have	+	en (perfect)				
		be	+	ing	(progressive)	
have		been		going		

4. *Kinds of Transforms and Expansions*

Transformation is simply a way to generate a variety of sentences through the expansion, modification, or inversion of the basic kernel sentence patterns.

a. *The There Transform.* The *there* transformation involves an inversion. *D + N + be + Adv. (The guests are here)* becomes *There + be + n + Adv. (There are guests here.)* A sentence using a progressive verb form may also employ the *there* transformation. *The students are leaving (D + N + be + V-ing)* becomes *There are students leaving (There + be + N + V-ing).* Some traditional grammarians would classify *leaving* in the inverted sentence as a participle modifying *students;* however, when viewed in the natural word order, *leaving* is a non-tense verb functioning as the headword of the verb phrase *are leaving,* and its tense is expressed through the auxiliary *be.*

b. *Verb Transformations*

(1) *Passive Transforms.* The passive transform consists of *Aux + V-en.* Only kernel sentences which contain objective case complements may be transformed. (Refer to the section on kernel sentence patterns.)

Example 1.	N^1	V	N^2			
	Bears	eat	honey.			
		becomes				
	N	Aux	V-en	P	N	
	Honey	is	eaten	by	bears.	

Example 2.	N^1	V	N^2	N^3		
	Mary	gave	me	money.		
		becomes				
	N	Aux	V-en^2	N^2	P	N
	Money	was	given	me	by	Mary.
		or				
	N^1	Aux	V-en	N^2	P	N
	I	was	given	money	by	Mary.

(*Me* and *money* are classified by traditionalists as retained objects.)

Example 3.	N^1	V	N^2	N^2		
	We	elected	John	president.		
		becomes				
	N^1	Aux.	V-en	N^2	P	N
	John	was	chosen	president	by	us.
Example 4.	N^1	V	N^2	Adj.		
	We	thought	him	silly.		
		becomes				
	N	Aux.	V-en	Adj.	P	N
	He	Was	thought	silly	by	us.

(Examples 3 and 4 require certain verbs like choose, elect, thought, voted, made, considered, and believe.)

(2) *Modal Transforms.* The modal transform is sometimes referred to as the emphatic. Some linguists use the sign *M* for the modal; others use the sign *Aux*.

N^1	V	N^2
Teachers	study	linguistics.
	becomes	

N^1	Aux.	V	N^2
Teachers	must can do	study	linguistics

Extra emphasis may also be achieved by stressing the auxiliary; *I am going* becomes more emphatic by stressing the *am*.

c. *Question Transforms*

(1) *Questionar Transforms.* Sometimes the questioner transform is referred to as the *Wh* transform. *Q* (questioner) is used here for simplicity. The question transform involves an inversion.

N	Aux.	V
He	is	going.
	becomes	

Q	Aux.	N	V
When where How	is	he	going?

(2) *Auxiliary Question Transforms*. Through inversion the auxiliary is used in the place of a questioner.

N[1]	Aux.	V
He	is	going.

becomes

Aux.	N	V
Is	he	going?

d. *Negative Transforms*. This transform involves the interpolation of the negative article. Sometimes the negative article is contracted with the verb.

N	Aux	V
He	is	going.

becomes

N	Aux.	Not	V
He	is	not	going.

N	Aux.	V
He	is	going.

becomes

N	Aux./Not	V
He	isn't	going.

e. *Modification*. Modification is achieved by transforming a kernel sentence and embedding it into another sentence. The kernel sentence may be transformed into a single word, a phrase, or a clause. The transformed kernel that is embedded as a modifier is called a *source sentence*; the one in which it is embedded is called a *consumer sentence*. Some kernels are transformed readily into single word modifiers, while others require transformation into phrases or clauses. The embedding of modifiers may produce simple sentences or complex sentences. Variety in sentence construction is achieved by using modification transforms. Modification transformations offer a valuable approach to composition. By placing as many related ideas as possible into one sentence, the speaker or writer may achieve variety.

Variety is achieved as follows:

Complex:

Source sentence – I purchased a table.
Consumer sentence – The table was an antique.
Result – The table that I purchased was an antique.

Simple:

Source – The table was an antique.
Consumer – I purchased a table.
Result – I purchased an antique table.

The teacher may have students list several related ideas and combine them into one sentence.

Sources: She was in the car. The car was speeding along the highway. The car was blue. The girl was pretty.
Consumer: The girl waved at us.
Result: The pretty girl in the blue car which was speeding along the highway waved at us.

Kernels may be transformed as follows:

(1) Transformation of kernels without complements

Kernel		*Transform*
N	V	
Dogs	bark.	*barking dogs or dogs that bark*
N	V	
Babies	cry.	*crying babies or babies that cry*

(2) Transformation of kernels with objective case complements.

Kernel			*Transform*
N^1	V	N^2	
Dogs	eat	bones.	*bone-eating dogs or dogs that eat bones*

D	N^1	V	N^2	D	N^2	
The	salesman	sold	me	a	car.	*The salesman who sold me a car*
D	N^1	V	N^2	N^2		
The	people	elected	him	chairman.		*the people who elected him chairman*
D	N^1	V	N^2	Adj.		
The	man	called	him	foolish.		*the man who called him foolish*

(3) Transformation of kernels with subjective case complements

Kernel					*Transform*
D	N^1	V	D	N^1	
The	teacher	became	my	friend.	*the teacher who became my friend*

Kernel						*Transform*
D	N	V	Adj.			
The	apples	tasted	delicious.			*the apples which tasted delicious or the delicious apples*
D	N^1	Be	D	N^1		
The	president	was	the	speaker.		*the president who was the speaker*
D	N	Be	Adj.			
The	apples	were	delicious.			*the apples which were delicious or the delicious apples*

(4) Transformation of kernels with adverb complements

Kernel						*Transform*
D	N	V	Adv.			
The	man	went	outside.			*the man who went outside*
D	N	Be	Adv.			
The	man	is	outside.			*the man who is outside or the man outside*
D	N	V	P	D	N	
The	man	went	into	the	yard.	*the man who went into the yard*
D	N	V	P	D	N	
The	man	is	in	the	yard.	*the man who is in the yard or the man in the yard.*

(5) *Transformation of kernels into adverb clauses.* Placing a subordinator *(because, when, if, where, while, unless, until, after, before, whereas, since)* before a kernel sentence produces an adverb clause.

Kernel						*Transform*
N	V					
Dogs	bark.					*Subordinator + dogs bark*
D	N^1	V	N^2	D	N^3	
The	salesman	sold	me	a	car.	*Subordinator + the salesman sold me a car*
D	N^1	V	N^2	N^2		
The	people	elected	him	chairman.		*Subordinator + the people elected him chairman*

(The other kernels are transformed by the same technique.)

f. *Noun substitues derived from transformed kernels*

(1) *Verb clusters.* Verb phrases of kernel sentences must be transformed to an *-ing* form or a *-to* form in order to function as a noun substitute.

Source -- He climbed the elm tree.
Consumer – This was his most enjoyable pastime.
Result – To climb the elm tree was his most enjoyable pastime.

OR

His most enjoyable pastime was climbing the elm tree.

(Remember that the above examples contain modification transforms.)

(2) *Clauses.* Clauses are sentence kernels which are embedded into a kernel as a noun function. (These clauses should be introduced by an *S* word or an *R* word.)

Source – He was intelligent.
Consumer – It is true.
Result – That he was intelligent is true. OR It is true that he is intelligent.

g. *Expansion Through Coordination of Kernels.* Coordination of one sentence pattern to another can best be illustrated. Some examples follow:

(1)	NP	+	VP,	C	NP	+	VP
	Dogs		bark,	and	cats		meow.
(2)	NP	+	VP;	NP	+	VP	
	Dogs		bark;	cats		meow.	
	NP	+	VP;	SC,	NP	+	VP
	Dogs		bark;	however,	cats		meow.

(Correlatives may also be used.)

h. *Apposition as an Expansion.* An appositive expands by inserting a kernel into another one to give additional information. It is not a modification transform.

Source – *Mr. Jones is a teacher at Westville High School.*
Consumer – *Mr. Jones won the amateur golf championship.*
Result – *Mr. Jones, a teacher at Westville High School, won the amateur golf championship.*

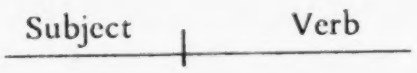
(In *Mr. Jones, who is a teacher at Westville High School, won the amateur golf championship*, the insert is a modification transform.)

5. *Examples of the Kinds of Diagrams.*

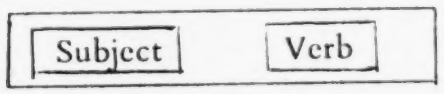
Diagrams are beneficial only if they help one to see the relationship of the constituents of the sentence. This section is designed to aid the application of knowledge based on traditional diagrams to the more modern approaches. A limited number of diagrams will be used.

a. Subject – Verb

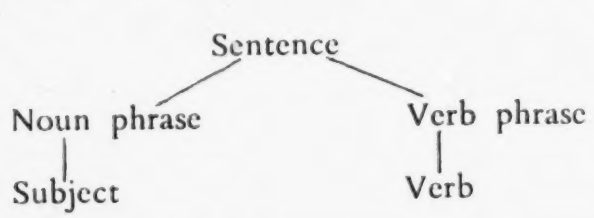
(1) Traditional (Reed–Kellogg)



(2) Chinese puzzle box

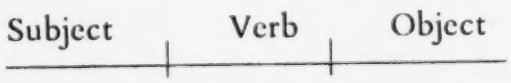


(3) Tree diagram (Transformational)



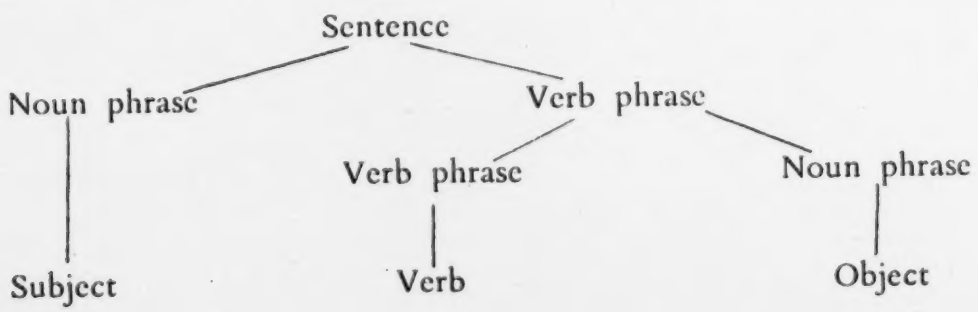
b. Subject–Verb–Object

(1) Traditional



(2) Chinese puzzle box

(3) Tree diagram

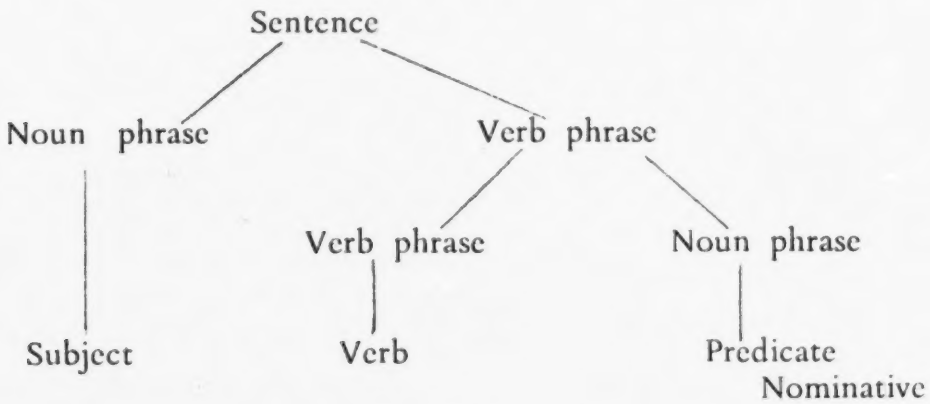


c. Subject–Verb–Predicate Nominative

(1) Traditional

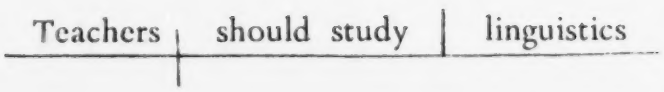
(2) Chinese puzzle box

(3) Tree diagram

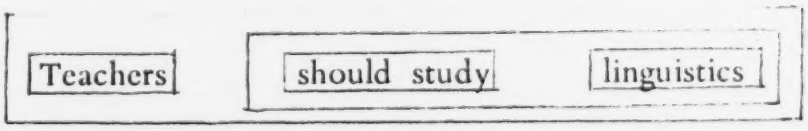


d. Simple Sentence

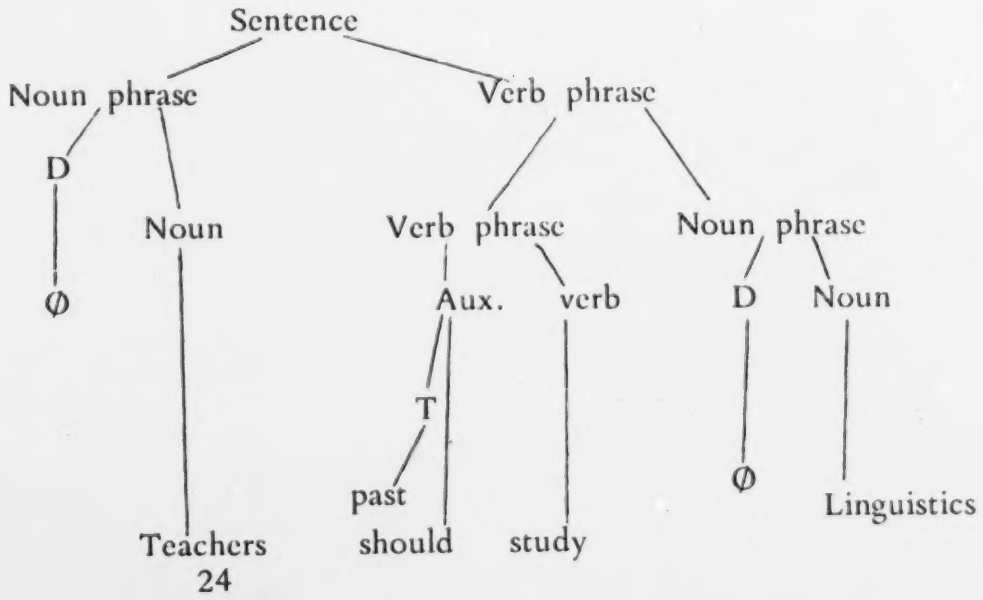
(1) Traditional



(2) Chinese puzzle box

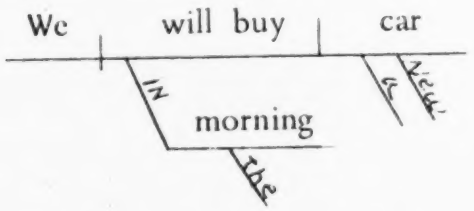


(3) Tree diagram

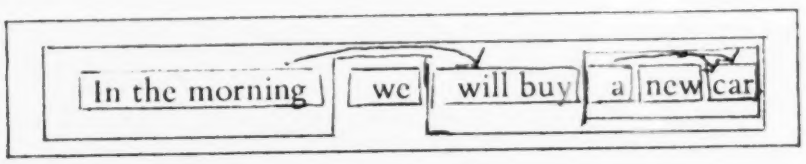


c. Simple sentence with a prepositional phrase

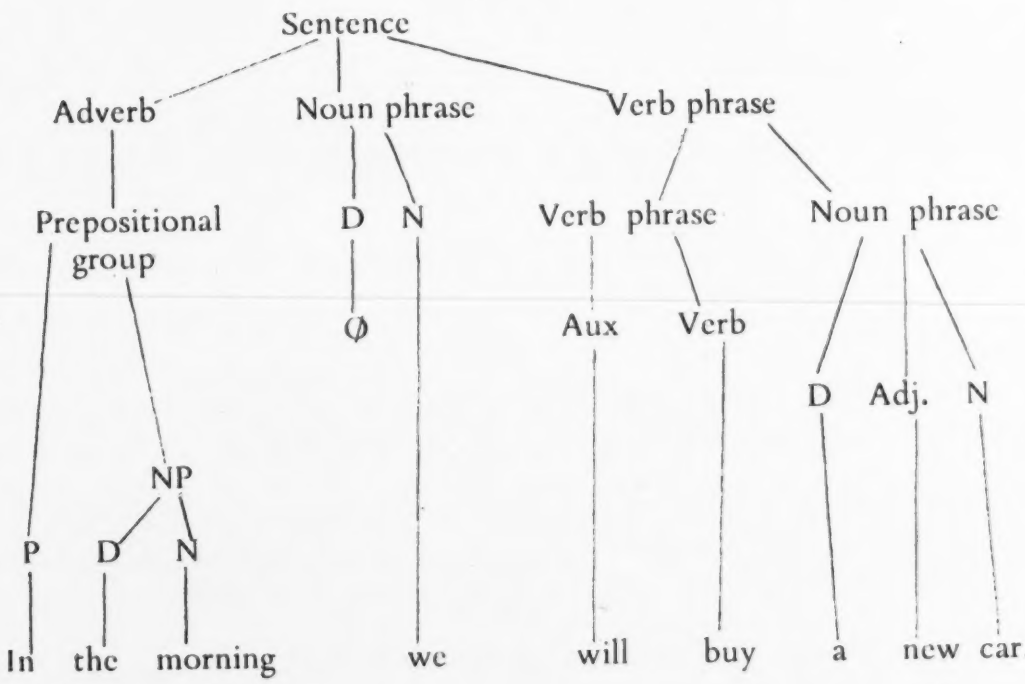
(1) Traditional



(2) Chinese puzzle box



(3) Tree diagram



LIMITED GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS

Affixation: The process of changing the form of words by the addition of affixes (prefix or suffix) to a root or stem.

Analytic Language: A language in which the chief determination of the function of a word is its position in a sentence. An analytic language does not rely upon prefixes and suffixes to denote case, gender, number, and tense.

Clusters: Groups of related words, usually some sort of a central or head word, either a noun or a verb, with accompanying modifiers, auxiliaries, and complements.

Deductive Approach: An approach to learning which involves beginning with a generalization and on the basis of this generalization, moving to specifics. It is beginning with the whole and deducing its parts. This approach is used in the traditional method of teaching grammar.

Deletion: Refers to a type of sentence change or transformation in which unnecessary or repetitious elements are deleted. This process may occur in simple sentence revision or in the process of combining two or more sentences.

Double Bar Juncture: The double bar juncture is a terminal juncture or break in the flow of speech between word groups. It is accompanied by a rise in voice pitch. The double bar juncture occurs in sequences and at the end of some questions. The symbol is represented by /‖/.

Double Cross Juncture: The double cross juncture is a terminal juncture or break in the flow or speech between word groups. A falling pitch in the voice is characteristic. The symbol is represented by /#/.

Functional Shift: Functional shift is the ability of some English words to function in a variety of ways. Inflectional endings of the word vary in accordance to its usage.

Headwords: Headwords are the words which form the nuclear center of some type of word group or cluster. Noun subjects and predicate verbs are the most common though adjectives, adverbs, verbals and function words may be headwords.

Homophone: Two or more words which sound alike and which may or may not be spelled alike, but have different meanings and origins.

Idiom: Idioms are expressions peculiar to a language. Idioms have come into existence through custom. Examples: It is raining. How are you?

Immediate Constituents: Immediate constituents are the necessary divisions of a syntactical construction. A sentence has the immediate constituents of subject and predicate. A prepositional phrase has the preposition plus the noun phrase. The noun phrase has the determiner plus the noun.

Inductive Approach: An approach to learning which begins with specifics and moves to generalizations. This approach allows the student to first consider individual situations and from these to try to form for himself some universal principals of the language.

Loose Sentence: A sentence in which ideas follow a natural sequence, whereas in a periodic sentence, the main idea comes at the end of the sentence.

Periodic Sentence: A periodic sentence is one in which the main idea is withheld until the end of the sentence.

Plus Juncture: Plus juncture is an internal juncture or break in speech. It occurs between words rather than word groups. It is represented by the symbol /+/. No pitch change is involved.

Postdeterminer: Postdeterminers mark or limit the noun. They are located immediately after the regular determiner in a sentence. Example: The two, least children.

Predeterminers: Predeterminers precede regular and postdeterminers. They may be separated from other determiners by the preposition *of*. Predeterminers are sometimes referred to as quantifiers. Nouns of quantity, as well as most regular and postdeterminers, can function as predeterminers.

Single Bar Juncture: This is a type of terminal juncture coming between word groups and is represented by the symbol /ǀ/. It is a slightly longer break or interruption in speech than the plus juncture.

Syntax: Syntax is a study of the ways in which words are organized into phrases, clauses and sentences.

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